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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

CHARACTERISTICS OF WOMEN IN "A SECOND LOOK" PROGRAM

BY

(C) KODYN HERMAN VANDONSELAAR

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

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submitted by KODYN HERMAN VANDONSELAAR

in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Education.

.....

Supervisor

.....

.....

Date ..Spring, 1978.....

Dedication

This thesis is dedicated to all those women who are involved in personal growth programs and activities. Above all, it is dedicated to one very special and courageous woman, my wife, Jenneke.

Abstract

At the centre of this thesis has been a consideration of "masculinity" and "femininity" in relation to the personalities, interests and abilities of women. A minor part consisted of research regarding attitudes towards feminism.

Subjects for the investigation consisted of housewives, aged between 25 and 55 years, who participated in a group-program between 1969 and 1972 and a follow-up in 1977. The purpose of the program was to create among participants an awareness of their potentials, abilities, personalities and interests, as well as insights into traditional and changing aspects of sex roles. Participants were encouraged to investigate the feasibility of initiating changes in their life circumstances.

The investigation consisted of two studies. The purpose of the first study was to obtain information about the masculine-feminine dimension with housewives as subjects. Such data were compared with information available in the literature, where students were most frequently used as subjects. Similarities were found for housewives and students in the relationships between personality-traits and interests. However, housewives and students appeared to differ in intellectual abilities when these were related to the masculine-feminine dimension.

The second study compared subjects who had (changers) and who had not (non-changers) made changes in their life circumstances. At the time of initial testing, there did

not appear to be differences between the two groups in terms of the "masculinity" or "femininity" of personalities and interests or in social conformity.

However, as a result of the follow-up, it was demonstrated that in comparison with initial testing data, the changers had made significant shifts towards more "masculinity" on personality and interest variables, while non-changers did not display any significant changes. Neither group of subjects showed changes in social conformity.

Other findings showed a positive correlation between the masculine-feminine personality dimension and attitudes towards feminism. Also, husbands of changers and non-changers did not differ in their attitudes towards feminism.

Implications of the literature reviewed and the results of this study have been discussed. It was suggested that it might be more beneficial and productive to perceive of "masculinity" and "femininity" as different aspects of development for both sexes, rather than sex based and determined characteristics. However, there is an apparent need for more research.

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CHAPTER I

THE THESIS PROBLEM

Introduction

In a recent interview on a Canadian television program, a man remarked that it was a shame that one half of our brain-power and creative ability has more or less been going to waste. In making that remark, he was referring to the capacities of our female population. The comment was especially noteworthy, since it came from a traditionally "male chauvenist" corner of our society, the military.[1]

One might say that many women have been aware of the validity of General Dextraze's observation. After all, throughout the centuries women have been experiencing the limitations placed on their roles in life because of their sex, without regard for their intellectual, emotional and physical capacities.

However, noteworthy as the remark may have been, it was only partially in line with reality, for over the last decade women have begun to act on their own behalf with increasing frequency. The growing interest related to the frustrations caused by longstanding overt and covert discrimination, has become crystallized in women's organizations and the political pressures they have been applying. It could be argued that political actions by women have received an inappropriate

---

[1] General Dextraze on "Face the Newsmen".

kind of coverage from the newsmedia during the past decade or so. On the other hand, it could be argued also, that at least there was coverage, something that previously occurred on only a few occasions. Less visible, but not less meaningful, has been the increasing frequency with which women have begun to occupy positions and carry out functions which until recently were the traditional domain of men.

It appears however, that with some exception, the women who have been mainly active in, involved with and therefore most beneficially affected by this social change, have belonged to the post World War II or even post Korean War generation. Reasons have been that these young women have grown up in an era when less restrictive child rearing practices had a tremendous impact on youth in general, but girls specifically. Facilitated by the occurrence of a rapid and extensive development in ways and means of communications, they were provided with the opportunity and freedom to investigate, question and if so desired, to reject the existing traditional values regarding women's roles.

Another segment of the female population, a somewhat older generation of women who were born prior to and during the wars of the 1940's, has found itself in a difficult situation. The women in this group were raised with and conditioned to values associated with the traditional "typist-nurse-teacher" roles for young women, to be followed by those related to the "wife-mother" roles once they were married.

Attached to these female sex roles were the stereotypical qualities of being "feminine" and a self-concept and sense of worthiness based on and evolved from the ability to serve. However, these women have also been exposed to and frequently affected by what has been known as the "feminist" movement. This movement has often been regarded by them with feelings of ambivalence, which have found their expression in such statements as "...I am not for this women's lib business; they want too much, but I do think that women should ...." to be followed by some of the major goals of the feminists, but seldom recognized as such by the speaker.

Another aspect of the dilemma facing these women has been their perception of their age as an obstacle to participation in a more extensive role in society, even though the majority of them have been only between 35 and 50 years of age. Besides, in many cases, they have never had the opportunity to develop the kinds of skills which would make such participation in contemporary society feasible without some form of re-education or re-training.

Francis (1973) referred to this group of women when she wrote:

> Some years ago, the Womens Bureau in the Ontario Department of Labour, set up a counselling service for women who wanted to re-enter the labour force. The counsellors were shocked to find the extent to which the majority of the women lacked self-

confidence and beliefs in their ability to take on a responsible job.(p.220).

Francis' (1973) comment was even applicable to university graduates, who had later married; they were found to have lost their self-confidence, to be passive and dependent and quite different individuals from what they were earlier.

Similar findings were reported by Manis and Mochizuki (1972) who worked mostly with such middle aged and middle class women in groups. The prevailing psychological characteristics of their subjects were feelings of low self-worth, experiences of role conflict, goallessness, guilt, dependency and depression.

However, in spite of the apparent psychological difficulties experienced by this group, women such as those described by Francis (1973) and Manis and Mochizuki (1972) have seldom been the subject of investigation. The majority of researchers have tended to utilize highschool and university students as subjects for their studies of the female population. Only as a recent co-phenomenon of the feminist move- has there been an increase in groupwork with and by women and as a result some more extensive and serious interest in their psychodynamics has developed. Whiteley (1973) commented that:

...the fact that such groups are being formed ...in larger and larger numbers in many differ-

> ent places and among women of diverse socio-economic backgrounds, attests to the validity of the movements' position that there is something radically wrong with the lives of women in our culture as they have been programmed to live them.(p.28).

In view of the increasing questioning by women in the middle age group and the relative lack of research in this area the focus has been placed on this population in the current investigation.

Problem

A great deal has been written about the dynamics involved in the process of "programming" (conditioning) womens lives. Generally, authors concerned have discussed the phenomenon in terms of the interrelationships between the self, self-esteem, the development of a self-concept and achievement motivation and the learning of sex roles.

Bardwick (1971) suggested that the value one places on the self determines the level of self-esteem and the greater the anxiety present, the greater the tendency will be to assume a role ascribed by society. Sherman (1971) referred to role as a "prescribed set of behaviours and attitudes expected of a group of people in a given culture"(p.93). The learning of a sex role, possibly through modelling, may be of great importance to the kind of self-concept that will

evolve and develop. An individual with a self-concept including competency and ability will likely become achievement motivated. According to O'Leary (1974), women have traditionally been reared to want fo fill the role of wife and mother in which society has cast them. Presumably, one of the reasons for women's acceptance of that role was that, again traditionally, women have perceived affiliation as achievement and affirmation of the self.

Whenever the results of the "programming", the overt characteristics of women (students) have been studied, the focus has usually been on what has been described as the "masculine-feminine" dimension in terms of both personality traits and vocational interests. Occasionally, intellectual ability has also been considered in relation to this dimension.

Descriptions of masculine traits tended to reflect competency, independence and confidence, while interests were said to involve intellectually demanding, achievement and action oriented occupations and activities. On the other hand, feminine traits have been considered to be of a passive, conforming and emotional nature and the interests sedentary, non-action and socially oriented. (Lewis, 1968; Bardwick and Douvan, 1972; Angrist, 1972; Peoples, 1975).

Many of the studies involving these characteristics contrasted the subjects on the basis of "home" and "career" orientation. The results tended to be consistent and simi-

lar. In other words "home-makers" produced feminine personality and interest profiles when they were tested, while the "careerists" displayed masculine characteristics. Intellectual ability appeared to be independent of either orientation. (Parker, 1966; Norfleet, 1968; Farmer and Bohm, 1970; Morris, 1974).

A related, but different set of studies involving the attitude towards women and feminism has been developed by social scientists, mainly as the result of the effort by women to obtain equal opportunities, status and non-discriminatory treatment. Although still limited in scope, findings have been that women and the better educated displayed more positive attitudes toward feminism, than men and those with a limited educational background. Also, having a wife or mother functioning in a non-traditional manner or role, appeared to have a positive influence on the attitudes. Other indications were that individuals with positive attitudes displayed more masculine characteristics. (Axelson, 1963; Tavris, 1973; Halas, 1974).

The subjects for the present investigation were middle aged housewives who participated in a group program labelled "A Second Look" offered by the Department (now Faculty) of Extension of the University of Alberta, commencing in the fall of 1969. The purpose of the program was to provide the participants with the opportunity to "have a look" at their personal strengths and weaknesses, their present life

circumstances and to investigate the feasibility of bringing about changes, if so desired.

The purpose of this research was twofold and conducted in two studies.

It has been reported in the literature that consistent relationships existed between personality traits and interests in terms of masculinity and femininity, when students were the subjects of study. The first study served to investigate whether such relationships would also be found when housewives were the subjects. In this study, the intellectual abilities in relation to personality traits and interests were also examined.

The purpose of the second study, basically a follow up five to seven years later, was to investigate:

(a) whether differences existed on the masculine-feminine dimension between individuals who had made changes in life circumstances and those who had not;

(b) whether individuals who reported changes in life circumstances manifested accompanying changes in measures on the masculine-feminine dimension;

(c) whether there was a relationship between attitudes towards feminism and masculine and feminine personality characteristics;

(d) whether the attitudes toward feminism of men whose wives had made changes in life circumstances differed

from those whose wives had not done so.

Thesis Overview

While the purpose of the current investigation has been outlined in Chapter I, a review of literature related to the problem has been presented in Chapter II in the following manner.

Firstly, some studies have been presented which provide background information regarding the development of self-concept and achievement motivation in relation to the learning of sex roles. This has been followed by studies in which implications of the ascribing of sex roles and the accompanying stereotyping in terms of "masculinity" and "femininity" have been discussed. Thereafter, research on the "masculinity" and "femininity" of personality traits and interests of females and the relationship to intellectual abilities has been presented. Studies about the attitudes towards women and feminism and research about groupwork with women have completed the literature review. The chapter has been concluded with a recapitulation and interpretation of the major findings and presentation of the hypotheses for this thesis.

The methodology applied in the two studies of the current investigation has been described in Chapter III, while the results and a discussion of these have been presented in Chapters IV and V respectively.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Self Concept, Achievement Motivation and Sex Role Learning

The relationship between self, the development of self-esteem, self-concept and achievement motivation and the learning of a sex role, has been discussed and studied by many authors. An overview follows.

Bardwick (1971) discussed the self and perceived it to be:

> ...a point of stability, a frame of reference... an object to oneself as well as others... a source of action, of motivation, of direction. (pp.154-155)

Bardwick and Douvan (1972) have suggested that "success in traditional tasks is the usual means by which girls achieve feelings of esteem about themselves, confidence and identity"(p.53). However, Bardwick (1971) also pointed out in this respect that adherence to traditional tasks, role expectations and models could prevent girls from using all of their abilities, which in turn might result in a divergence from the real self. Too great a divergence leads to role conflict and low self-esteem.

Korman (1966, 1967a, 1967b, 1970) conducted a series of studies in which the concept of self and sex role learning were viewed in relation to career oriented achievement motivation. The results of the studies indicated that var-

ious aspects of self-esteem affect choice, self-confidence, the nature of activity preferences and orientation of achievement. More specifically, it was observed that individuals with high self-esteem were more likely to choose occupations where they perceived themselves to have high abilities, than were individuals with low self-esteem. Furthermore, women were hesitant to engage in behaviours which required characteristics that were societally typified as male sex role appropriate; low self-esteem females might even choose an occupation which called for their low abilities rather than their high ones, simply because the occupation was sex role appropriate.

Korman's (1967b) latter finding was also noted by O'Leary (1974) who identified a number of factors as being most influential in preventing women from having occupational aspirations. These included the externally located sex role stereotyping and attitudes towards women's competencies and the internally located fear of failure.

After reviewing a number of studies conducted between 1964 and 1970, Horner (1972) described this "fear of failure" as a "motive to avoid success". Horner (1972) considered this motive to be "an internal psychological representative of the dominant social stereotype"(p.157). The major causes of the motive appeared to be the fear of social rejection and feelings of being unfeminine. It should be noted that

Robins (1972) has disputed Horner's (1972) findings and conclusions on the basis of inadequate experimental design and sampling bias. She also insisted that the concept of "success" must be re-examined and re-evaluated.

Other studies have provided a variety of added and related insights regarding the relationship between the development of self-concept, achievement motivation and sex role learning. The results from a small but relevant sample of these studies follows.

Houts and Entwistle (1968) showed that a relationship between achievement attitudes and school-grades existed only if masculine competitive behaviour was perceived as appropriate for the female role. Putnam and Hansen (1972) found that middle class girls who strived for fulfillment by achieving their own potentials and accomplishments tended to be more vocationally mature. Girls with such "liberal" attitudes had greater "ability to cope with vocational tasks of formulating ideas regarding an appropriate occupation"(p.440). When housewives were compared with women who had no "home" involvements, Gordon and Hall (1974) found that the latter perceived a greater discrepancy between their own image of a feminine woman and their image of how such a woman would be perceived by males.

Finally, Kimmelman (1973) found in a group of 12 women, that the two least conflicted individuals were a woman who

had totally accepted the traditional role of wife and mother and another who was highly achieving (non-traditionally) and unwilling to exchange career for marriage. The other subjects displayed feelings of lack of self-esteem, self-doubt and fears of growing up as females.

To summarize, a number of authors have discussed the interrelationships between the self, development of self-concept and achievement motivation in relation to the learning of sex roles. An important implication arising from these discussions has been that the ascribing of relatively narrowly defined sex roles to women has had a limiting influence on their psychological development and motivation to achieve.

Sex Role Learning and Masculinity-Femininity

The terms "masculine" and "feminine" have been described as qualities regarded to be characteristic of men and women respectively (Webster, 1960). The origin of these qualities has been considered to be "more or less" rooted in anatomy, physiology, and early experience (Constantinople, 1973) distinguishing between sexes in appearance, attitudes and behaviour. Developers of some early instruments measuring the masculine-feminine dimension (Terman and Miles, 1936) did not make definite statements about the specific causes of such differences. However, they suggested that these could have originated in the "physiological and biochemical" or "the psychological and cultural" or both. In other words,

the essentially developmental process of interactions between the biological and environmental factors, found its expression in measurable overt characteristics and behaviours. These characteristics and behaviours have been labelled as "masculine" and "feminine". The terms have become stereotypical in content and nature, since they are largely the result of a developmental process hampered and limited by narrow sex role descriptions. A "stereotype" has been defined by Webster (1960) as an "unvarying form or pattern; fixed or conventional expression, notion, characteristic, mental pattern...having no individuality"(p.1430).

The results of a study by Lunneberg (1970) demonstrated the extent to which this stereotyping process could go. He requested 398 college students to describe their own sex, themselves and the opposite sex, using The Edwards Personality Preference Scale (EPPS). The findings produced an "amazing array of stereotypes with strong consensus between the sexes"(p.113). Perceived or predicted sex differences were more pronounced than the actual ones. Already existing sex differences in personality traits were exaggerated and when there were none, they were created.

Constantinople (1973) also referred to the prevalence and frequency of the terms "masculine" and "feminine".

> Masculinity and femininity, their hallmarks and salience in personal development, are widely

> discussed in relation to both individuals and groups, and it often seems that value judgments are implicit in both general and professional applications of the terms.(p.390).

The value judgments associated with the terms "masculine" and "feminine" have been explicitly in favour of the masculine as was demonstrated by Lunneberg (1970) whose female as well as male subjects valued the masculine traits more than the feminine ones. Similar findings were reported by Broverman, Vogel, Broverman, Clarkson and Rosenkrantz (1972), while Brown (1958) came to the same conclusion after an extensive literature review.

A large number of authors (Lewis, 1968; Bardwick, 1971; Sherman, 1971; Broverman et. al., 1972; Maccoby, 1972; Angrist, 1972; Peoples, 1975; Sorenson and Winters, 1975) have provided descriptions of masculinity and femininity. According to these descriptions, feminine individuals have been considered to be: subjective, intuitive, passive, tender minded, sensitive, impressionistic, yielding, receptive, emotional, conservative, non-competitive, conforming, socially oriented in general and specifically in achievement motivation. Feminine interests have focussed on literature, music, fine arts; these are also sedentary, oriented toward social services and involved with commercial, secretarial and health oriented occupations such as nursing. Feminine reading interests have been considered to consist of fiction,

biographies and short stories about 'real' people.

In contrast individuals with masculine characteristics have been viewed as being: aggressive, independent, dominant, self-sufficient, confident, objective, analytic, hostile, less affectionate, and occupationally oriented in achievement motivation. Masculine interests have been described as being: mathematical, scientific, political, computational and historical. Masculine activities were stated to be vigorous and the content of masculine reading material adventure stories, sports and mysteries.

It is not surprising that the masculine characteristics have been preferred when the descriptions are being viewed within the context of a culture which values achievement in the vocational area and rewards those forms of expression which are more likely to result in vocational success. As a result, the female may have come to perceive her very personal qualities as second rate, be these biologically based, the product of extensive and intensive programming or a combination of both.

Some of the implications of sex role stereotyping and the ascribing of characteristics to males and especially females have been in the area of mental health as has been demonstrated by several authors.

Broverman et. al. (1972) requested 79 male and female mental health clinicians to complete a questionnaire enabling them to indicate masculine and feminine behaviours

as being appropriate for males and females. The clinicians were all practicing and came from various educational backgrounds including psychiatry, social work and psychology. Results of the study showed that sex role definitions had been demonstrably incorporated into the self-concepts of both the male and female clinicians and were considered to be desirable. Furthermore, they ascribed desirable masculine traits significantly more frequently to healthy men, than to healthy women. In contrast to this, desirable feminine traits were only half as frequently ascribed to healthy women, as to healthy men. The clinicians suggested also that healthy women differ from healthy men by being more submissive, less independent, less adventurous, less aggressive, less competitive, less objective, more easily influenced, more conceited about their appearance and having their feelings more easily hurt. Another finding was that clinicians' ratings of a healthy man and a healthy adult did not differ from each other; however, a significant difference did exist between the ratings of the healthy adult and the healthy woman.

The judgments by the clinicians about the desirability of sex role definitions and the stereotypical feminine traits of healthy women were contradicted by empirical evidence as reported by Bart (1972). In her work with hospitalized, depressed middle aged women, she found the patients to score one half a standard deviation more feminine than the

mean on the masculine-feminine (Mf) scale of the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI). Comments by Bart (1972) were that:

> ...it is the women who assume the traditional feminine role...who are not overtly aggressive, in short who 'buy' the traditional norms... who respond with depression when their children leave.(p.142).

In a similar vein, Wolowitz (1972) has provided indications for the existence of a relationship between hysteria and an extreme feminine identity, especially when that identity has not been rewarded in the traditional ways through immediate emotionally positive feedback.

With regard to this issue, Sherman (1971) suggested that the traditionally and culturally ideal passive and dependent feminine personality, was both inadequate and unadaptive and that it might be beneficial for a process of adjustment, to have some characteristics which have been stereotyped as masculine. Similarly, Bardwick (1971) has suggested that extreme forms of dependency, passivity and non-aggressive behaviour are related to psychosomatic symptoms in women and to ambivalent relationships with their families.

Angrist (1972) has written that:

> ...the girl learns to be "feminine" with all the

> adjectival subscales that term connates - relative passivity, deferance, low intellectuality, cooperativeness...catering to people's palates, to their moods, to their needs - these are feminine skills considered necessary to being a wife and mother.(p.104).

If both Sherman (1971) and Angrist (1972) were correct and their observations and conclusions carried to the ultimate, then the implications would be that, traditionally, girls have been raised to become inadequately functioning human beings.

The measurement of the masculine-feminine dimension appeared to have its origin in the Terman and Miles (1936) studies. The authors, at that time, perceived a tendency to equate sexes in terms of general intelligence and special talents. However, there was also the remaining belief that sexes differ fundamentally in their "instinctive and emotional equipment"(p.2) and in sentiments, interests, attitudes and other behaviours which were "derivatives" of that equipment. No theory was developed as to how the sexes might differ, but experimental data were obtained to observe how they did differ. The resulting instrument consisted of 7 subtests: word association, ink blot association, information, emotional and ethical response, interests, personalities and opinions and introvertive response. The researchers presented data showing significant differences between scores

of men and women at all ages beginning at adolesence, although one of their findings was also that for women, education and intelligence were positively correlated with masculinity.

Since that time, unidimensional scales measuring masculinity-femininity have been included in a variety of tests currently in use, such as the Strong Vocational Inventory Blank, (SVIB), California Psychological Inventory (CPI) and MMPI.

A number of serious criticisms have been expressed about the concept of "masculinity-femininity". Constantinople (1973) questioned the validity of the assumptions at the basis of the masculine-feminine dimension and the Mf scales measuring it. The assumptions included in these questions were (1) the definition in terms of sex differences, (2) the single bipolarity and (3) the unidimensionality, to be measured by a single score.

Support can be obtained for those objections. Maccoby (1972), who reviewed the literature concerned with the intelligence of females, has stated that:

> ...analytic thinking, creativity and high general intelligence are associated with cross-sex typing, in that men and boys who score high are more feminine, and the women more masculine, than their low scoring same sex counterparts. (p.38).

Also, Rand (1968), using female university students as subjects, found a significant tendency for career oriented women to score higher not only on masculine characteristics, but on many feminine ones as well. Both these findings and those of Maccoby (1972) provided support for Constantinople's (1973) objection to definition of masculinity and femininity in terms of sex differences.

Applying factor analyses to scores among a variety of MF scales, Webster (1956) arrived at three femininity factors: a) conventionality - preference for conventional feminine roles and interests; b) passivity - lack of aggressiveness, dominance and manipulativeness; and c) feminine sensitivity - emotionality, fantasy, introspection, neurotic trends and aesthetic interests. These results, although stereotypical in their description of femininity, seemed to indicate the existence of multi, instead of unidimensionality, and as such again provided support for one of Constantinople's (1973) objections.

To summarize, feelings of self-esteem have been considered to be of great importance in the development of a self-concept. When the feelings of self-esteem are low or negative, a sense of competency is not integrated into the self-concept. Whatever achievement motivation may develop, it is certainly incapacitated. This has been the case for women whose developmental process has suffered due to the conforming acceptance of a stereotypical sex role, which was

ascribed, but not necessarily valued by society. The resulting descriptions of "femininity" are limited in scope, very pervasive, but frequently degrading. Some of the more extreme forms of "femininity" may have detrimental consequences regarding the state of mental health of those concerned.

On the other hand, the female who has a healthy self-esteem and distinct self-concept, who is reasonably fulfilled and achievement oriented, has been identified as displaying masculine traits and characteristics. In view of this, it is not too surprising that both males and females generally favour masculine over feminine characteristics.

Moreover, aside from the social aspects and implications, there have been genuine theoretical questions regarding the polarity and unidemensionality of the "masculine-feminine" concept and the MF scales which have been claimed to measure it. There appears to be general agreement that more research is needed in this respect.

Personality, Interests and Intellectual Abilities

Many of the studies involving the masculinity and femininity of personality traits and interests and the relationship with intellectual abilities were conducted on a basis of comparison between "pioneers" and "traditionals". The former involved subjects who were career oriented, while the latter had expressed preference for marriage and home.

Of the studies provided here, those by Tyler (1964), Parker (1966), Wagman (1966), Rezler (1967), Gysbers and Johnston (1968), Farmer and Bohm (1970), Tinsley (1972) and Morris (1974) are of such nature. A variety of criteria has been used in order to establish appropriate sample groups. Tyler (1964), Gysbers and Johnston (1968), Farmer and Bohm (1970) used the scores on stereotypical masculine and feminine occupational scales of the SVIB as a means to form these groups. Parker (1966), Wagman (1966) and Rezler (1967) designed questionnaires, while Tinsley (1972) and Morris (1974) used the actual life situation of the subjects as valid criteria for the formation of samples.

Other studies concerned with personality traits, interests and abilities have utilized comparisons of capable and noncapable students (Drews, 1965), achievers and underachievers (Faunce, 1968; Norfleet, 1968) and individuals with differences in expressed vocational preferences (Elton and Rose, 1967).

High school or university students were subjects in the majority of studies (Tyler, 1964; Drews, 1965; Parker, 1966; Wagman, 1966; Rezler, 1967; Elton and Rose, 1967; Gysbers and Johnston, 1968; Norfleet, 1968). Farmer and Bohm (1970) used single and married women, while Faunce (1968), Tinsley (1972) and Morris (1974) had women of post college age from the general population as subjects for their investigations.

Personality. Tyler (1964) found that careerists scored higher than the home makers on the following scales of the CPI: dominance (Do), capacity for status (Cs), sense of well-being (Wb), responsibility (Re), socialization (So), self-control (Sc), tolerance (To), good impression (Gi), achievement via conformance (Ac), achievement via independence (Ai), intellectual efficiency (Ie) and psychological mindedness (Py). The home makers scored higher on only the commonality (Cm) scale.

Rezler's (1967) "pioneers" displayed a stronger intellectual attitude and more masculinity, than "traditionals", who demonstrated a greater social orientation, self-control and status orientation. The instrument used was the California Test of Mental Maturity (CTMM).

In a longitudinal study Gysbers and Johnston (1968) compared students whose career or home orientation had remained demonstrably stable over a period of 4 to 8 years. Results obtained by means of a questionnaire showed that careerists saw themselves as being more impatient when their personal needs conflicted with the needs of others, they regarded personal achievement more important than regard from others and they recalled doing their schoolwork to satisfy their own goals more than to please others. For home makers the reverse of these observations was true.

The results of a questionnaire demonstrated Tinsley's (1972) careerists to be more self-confident about their

intellectual abilities than the home makers who were more adept in social skills and conservative in their opinions about education and social issues.

The outcomes of a variety of personality tests showed careerists needs to be for autonomy, nurturance, change, heterosexuality and aggression, in Morris' (1974) study. These subjects were also found to be aggressive, competitive, expedient, opinionated, socially bold, free thinking and suspicious. The needs of home makers were for deference, order and abasement with their personality traits described as being conscientious, staid and moralistic.

In a study by Elton and Rose (1967) administration of the Omnibus Personality Inventory (OPI) revealed more masculine behaviours among subjects whose vocational interests were in scientific, business, finance and medical areas, than among those who had vocational preferences for arts, humanities, administrative, social, religious and educational areas.

Faunce (1968) reported that university graduates when compared with individuals who did not graduate (intellectual abilities were equal) were more insightful, conventional, moderate, temperate, self-confident and psychologically better integrated. Nongraduates displayed less insight, less impulse control and more inner tensions. The instrument used was the MMPI. The graduates scored higher on the Lie (L) scale than their counterparts, who obtained higher scores on scales measuring psychopathic deviancy (Pd), manic depression (Ma) and hysteria (Hy). It should be noted

that all scores were considered to be within the normal range.

Norfleet (1968) studied gifted achievers and underachievers, by means of the CPI and the Gough Adjective Check List (ACL). The following scales of the CPI distinguished between achievers and underachievers, the former scoring higher: social presence (Sp), responsibility (Re), socialization (So), tolerance (To), achievement via conformance (Ac), achievement via independence (Ai), intellectual efficiency (Ie) and psychological mindedness (Py). The underachievers showed a trend towards scoring higher on the commonality (Cm) scale only. The results of the ACL revealed that achievers described themselves as capable, conscientious, industrious and bossy. Underachievers provided self-descriptions of a nature which suggested a lack of ambition and aggressiveness, but presence of friendliness and sentimentality.

To summarize, studies generally suggested that, contrary to their counterparts, the career and achievement oriented subjects demonstrated characteristics within a sphere of self-assurance, self-confidence, assertiveness, independence, intellectual efficiency and overall greater maturity.

Interests. Tyler's (1964) longitudinal study provided indications that vocational preferences expressed in grade 8,

persisted through grades 10, 11 and 12. Using the SVIB as instrument, she demonstrated that careerists displayed preferance for the following occupations: artist, author, librarian, english teacher, musician, physician, dentist and occupational therapist. In contrast to this the homemakers preferred life insurance sales woman, buyer, housewife, office worker, stenographer, secretary, business education teacher, home economics teacher, dietitian and physical education teacher. Similar results were obtained by Parker (1966) and Gysbers and Johnston (1968) who administered the SVIB to subjects with identical orientations. The latter investigators obtained results from a questionnaire also, which revealed that careerists preferred social interaction with men rather than with women and that they read more news than women's magazines.

Tinsley's (1972) longitudinal study covering approximately 12 to 20 years indicated that individuals engaging in careers scored higher on verbal-linguistic, verbal-scientific, and social service scales of the SVIB. The homemakers prevailed on business, non professional and health related areas.

Other findings obtained through completion of the SVIB came from Faunce's (1968) graduates who scored higher on the author, librarian, english teacher, social science teacher, psychologist and lawyer scales, while non-graduates showed more interest in such occupations as buyer,

stenographer, office worker, business education teacher and dietitian.

In addition to the SVIB, Wagman (1966) administered the Allport-Vernon-Lindzey study of values (AVL) to his subjects. Psychologist, lawyer and physician were the occupational choices of careerists; their value preferences were for the theoretical and esthetic while they expressed a dislike for values of an economic nature. Homemakers expressed a preference for the housewife, home economics teacher and dietitian activities, while their values were positively oriented towards the social, religious and economic areas; political and theoretical values were not attractive to these subjects.

Finally, an original approach was followed by Farmer and Bohm (1970). They administered the SVIB twice to 25 married and 25 single working women. The second administration included experimental home-career conflict reducing instructions. The experimentors predicted that a) scores of career scales would increase and scores of home scales decrease after experimental instructions and b) married or single status would not be a significant variable in the conflict reduction. Both predictions were substantiated.

From the studies outlined here, it might be concluded that careerists consistently demonstrated a preference for occupations in professional and semi-professional areas. These occupations could involve social service, scientific

or linguistic activities and content. On the other hand, homemakers appeared to be more interested in skilled, semi-skilled or non-skilled occupations of the office, health or homemaking variety.

Intellectual Abilities. In Tyler's (1964) study career oriented girls in grade 12 demonstrated a trend toward higher grade point averages than the home oriented subjects. The "pioneers" of Rezler's (1967) study also obtained higher grade point averages and in addition scored higher on both the mathematical and verbal parts of the Preliminary scholastic aptitude test (PSAT), than the "traditionals".

Drews (1965) did not state the criteria used to assess ability and no mention was made of specific psychological instruments used. However, when capable students were compared with less able ones, the former were rated higher by teachers in intellectual, social and emotional abilities and were more original and openminded as judged by their classmates.

Subjects with arts, humanities and scientific preferences scored higher on the American College Test (ACT) than individuals who would choose social, religious, educational and business-oriented occupations. The researchers (Elton and Rose, 1967) also found that students who could not state a specific area of vocational preference, obtained the highest scores on a "scholarly orientation" scale.

Subjects in the Faunce (1968) study demonstrated differences in personality characteristics and vocational interests. However, all obtained scores which fell above the 80th percentile of an ability test, the Educational Psychological Examination (EPE), whether they had graduated or not.

Norfleet's (1968) subjects were all labelled as being gifted, a description determined by means of a minimum standard score of 60 on the School and College ability Test (SCAT). It has been demonstrated that differences existed between the achievers and underachievers in terms of personality characteristics.

From these results, it might be concluded that findings of studies on the relationship between intellectual abilities, personality characteristics and vocational preferences have been inconclusive, although individuals with masculine interests appeared to perform better on occasion.

Summary. When viewed within the context of "masculinity" and "femininity" as outlined previously, the following appear to be valid conclusions about the results of the reported studies:

(a) "masculine" characteristics were positively related with career-orientation, while "feminine" characteristics were related to home-orientation.

(b) predominantly masculine personalities appeared to be mostly, but not only interested in masculine vocations; they did display some feminine vocational interests.

(c) predominantly feminine personalities appeared to be almost exclusively interested in feminine vocations.

(d) individuals with masculine characteristics in terms of personality and interests display more intellectual abilities on some occasions than their feminine counterparts. These findings were not consistent or pervasive.

Regarding the home and career orientation, Tyler's (1964) observation appeared to be generally applicable to the studies reported:

> ...the fact, that the differences on all scales relevant to responsibility and the attitudes that lead to achievement show a difference in favour of the career group is...impressive (p.211).

Attitudes Toward Feminism and Women in General

Despite the support the feminist movement has received, there has been much opposition to it and denunciation of those active in it by both males and females. This has partially been so because of the news media's tendency to publish the more extreme, sometimes angry and hate-filled rhetoric by a small minority of females, while the real issues involved have been ignored too often. In spite of the new freedom for women since the mid-sixties, successful women are still being viewed with suspicion and Horner (1972) thinks that "the suspicion may have increased" (p.176).

In the majority of the available studies, the attitude towards feminism specifically or towards women who are generally not in a housewife role, has been investigated in relation to the characteristics of the subjects whose attitudes were measured. These subjects might be women, students, or specific groups of either sex, as well as husbands of working and non-working women.

Understandably, the initial and early studies were more involved with the attitudes regarding working and non-working women, rather than with feminism as such, since the latter phenomenon was not yet very prevalent at the time.

An example of such a study is that by Weil (1961) who obtained data relating to 200 married women with children who actually worked in or planned participation in the labour force. Such participation appeared to be influenced by the following factors: (a) a positive attitude on the part of the husband, (b) previous performance before marriage in an occupation requiring specialized education, (c) a high level of achieved professional standing, (d) acceptance of some obligations for child care and household chores by the husband, (e) the age of the children. Weil (1961) concluded that the husband's attitude and the woman's career orientation were the deciding factors.

Another study was conducted by Axelson (1963). He obtained and compared the attitudes of husbands (N=122) of working and non-working women. The most relevant findings

have been presented in Table I.

TABLE I

Positive Responses (in percentages) by Men to a Questionnaire Investigating the Attitudes Towards Working Wives

Item	Wife not-working	Wife Working
Wives should only work in emergency	96	59
Women should receive equal pay	49	62
Husband should help around the house	13	29
Working mother is not good for children	95	58
Women are becoming too independent	70	31
Working wife would neglect husband	68	22
Working wife would be less of a companion	80	21
Would be proud of a wife who earns more money than husband	12	29

Of the working wives in the study, 51% did so to increase the standard of living, 24% because they liked to and 13% because of emergency situations. Axelson (1963) concluded that a working wife would be a threat to the culturally defined dominance of the men whose wives were at home. The husbands of working women held less tenaciously to the historically masculine perogatives of greater economic advantage and sexual predominance.

Approximately a decade later a variety of studies appeared which investigated the attitudes regarding the feminist movement specifically in relation to other variables. These variables could be demographic (O'Keefe, 1972; Dempewolff, 1973; Morgan, 1974), or involve personality aspects and socialization processes (O'Keefe, 1972; Dempewolff, 1973; Singer, 1974; Gackenbach, 1975 and Halas, 1974). Some of the studies were mainly concerned with the attitudes per se (Morgan, 1974; Tavris, 1973; Parelius, 1975).

O'Keefe (1972) studied the relationship between attitudes towards the aims and goals of the feminist movement and personal and demographic variables. Both female (N=128) and male (N=110) university students were administered a self designed Women's Liberation Scale (WLS), the Wiggins' FEM scale, the EPPS and a questionnaire. Subjects were divided into two groups on the basis of the median score on the WLS scale, and labelled sympathizers and non-sympathizers respectively. Subsequently they participated by choice in a cooperative or competitive task. Results did not show differences for males and females and there was no difference between those individuals who chose either the competitive or cooperative task. However, WLS and FEM scores correlated with outcomes on the EPPS. The sympathizers planned to have less children, more frequently had mothers who worked and more often came from urban families with an income of less than $15,000.

In a similar kind of study, using the Kirkpatrick Feminism Scale Dempewolff (1973) found that male supporters of feminism were more likely to have mothers who had completed some college courses, while the mothers of opposers more often terminated their education at the high school level. Female supportes tended to be encountered more often among those from Jewish, Agnostic and Atheist backgrounds than among Catholics and Protestants. These latter findings tended to be consistent with those of Morgan (1974) who reported that the best predictors for positive attitudes were lack of religions orthodoxy, atheism and agnostism. Morgan (1974) also found the married marital status to be of positive influence.

Findings regarding personality characteristics and socialization processes were as follows:

O'Keefe (1972) found sympathizers of feminism to be more achievement oriented and autonomous and less abasing and to be less "feminine". The supporters of feminism in the Dempewolff (1973) study demonstrated significantly lower social distance and higher independence of judgement than non-supporters.

In a study designed to examine the relationship between attitudes toward the feminist movement and attitudes toward autonomy in work, Singer (1974) found that for both males and females a positive correlation existed between the two attitudes, .605 and .632 for males and females respectively.

However, the study was based upon author designed instruments with questionable reliability and validity, making the results suspect.

Halas (1974) studied the relationship between early socialization processes and sex role stereotypes in attitudes and behaviours. The impact of the feminist movement on the subjects, 38 mature female community college students and 25 of their acquaintances who were not in school, was also explored. An attitude towards women scale and a personal data questionnaire were used to measure liberal and traditional ideologies, early childhood experiences and stereotyping. Eventually eight traditionals and eight liberals were selected for individual case studies by means of a structured interview questionnaire. Results showed the students to be more liberal than the housewives. The earlier in life sex role stereotyping took place, the more traditional the women were. Liberal ideologies were associated with a non-stereotype childhood, wide social experiences and the feminist movement. The latter was found to be a very powerful motivator.

After viewing a humorous pro-feminist film: "Anything you want to be" demonstrating the conflicts and absurdities that beset high school girls, non sexist females showed a greater increment on measured anxiety, depression and hostility than sexist females. Males did not show differences.

Sexism was established by Gackenbach (1975) in this study, using an attitude towards women scale.

Of the studies involved mainly with the attitudes towards feminism as such, the one by Morgan (1974) concerned eight goals of the movement. The responses by 493 male and female students did not differ; 17.8%, 49.3% and 32% showed low, medium and high approval respectively. The most preferred goal was that of public day care centres, while the least acceptable goal was the preferential hiring of women.

Parelius (1975) wanted to investigate the influence of the feminist movement and sex role attitude changes by means of a longitudinal study. A Likert style questionnaire was completed by 147 female students in 1969 and by another 200 in 1973. Findings indicated that in 1973, 30% more feminist responses were given on seven of the nine available items. The 1973 sample was more strongly oriented toward occupational activity and more supportive of equal rights than in 1969. Traditional women were almost unanimously convinced in both 1969 and 1973 that men did not want women with feminist orientations. Feminists saw men as being more accepting in general; however, between 1969 and 1973 their perceptions of men changed. In 1973, they perceived men as being more conservative about the marital role and more liberal in the division of housework, but neither more liberal nor more conservative about women in the labour force.

Probably the most extensive survey of attitudes toward the feminist movement was conducted by Tavris (1973). She used approximately 20,000 responses to a questionnaire published in the magazine, Psychology Today. A disproportionate number (72%) of these responses came from women. Of the total, 25% was strongly and 36% moderately in favour of the movement with one-half of the respondents believing that the feminist movement would have a direct beneficial influence on their lives. Tavris (1973) reported that male support appeared to be more ideological (i.e., politically and religiously based) while the support of women seemed to depend on their personal experiences (i.e., discrimination in work, sexism and the need to combine work and marriage). Other relevant findings have been presented in Table II.

TABLE II

Positive Responses (in percentages) by Men and Women to a Questionnaire Measuring Attitude Towards Feminism

Item	Men	Women
Child rearing is not a satisfying job	17	30
Society exploits women as much as it does blacks	51	63
Women have only themselves to blame for discrimination	33	51
Women need to prove their abilities individually in order to overcome discrimination	37	48
There is a biological basis for differences between sexes in terms of masculine and feminine characteristics	85	59

Summary. From the studies of attitudes toward feminism, it appears that positive attitudes towards working women in general and the feminist movement and its goals specifically are developing. However, these attitudes still appear to be associated with specific segments of society, such as the "young", better educated and those with general liberal ideologies. Also, the attitudes of men appeared to have been influenced positively when the actuality of a working wife or mother had been experienced. In general, women especially those who were career-oriented, appeared to favour feminism more extensively and frequently than men, but not in an overwhelming fashion. Their perception of what men appeared to want and expect from women, still played a role in their own attitudes. Sympathizers, both male and female, also had a tendency to display more masculine than feminine characteristics.

Groupwork With Women

With the increasing recognition of the need for psychological help and the limitations inherent in "one to one" counselling, groupwork has developed as a viable alternate form of psychotherapeutic involvement. Groupwork has taken many different forms such as encounter groups, T-groups and group guidance and through the blossoming awareness of group dynamics and interactions many previous concepts have been changed. Now theoretical formulations, techniques and

procedures have continued to appear in the professional literature. Although much groupwork has been conducted with specific populations such as adolescents, alcoholics, couples, students, prison inmates and so on, the literature provided very little information about groupwork with women in general or housewives specifically until recently. In all likelihood, little groupwork with women had occurred. However, during the past five years or so, some different approaches to groupwork with women have appeared, with the most common one being that of consciousness-raising.

Consciousness-raising groups. Several authors have reviewed the literature on this topic and commented on its purpose, form and content (Gornich, 1972; Whiteley, 1973; Brodsky, 1973; Warren, 1976). A summary of their findings has been presented.

The consciousness-raising groups have usually consisted of no more than 10 participants, meeting regularly once a week for 2-3 hours over a period of several months. A distinct condition of the groups has been the absence of a leader.

The particular emphasis of the groups has been on social conditioning and sexism or on "making women aware that their relationships with men is a class relationship" as Whiteley (1973,p.27) has stated. The issue of cultural patriarchy has been a recurring one in the literature, although the objectives of the groups appeared to vary.

Other aspects which have also been stressed, include: assertiveness training, personal growth, achievement orientation and self-development. In addition women have frequently been encouraged to express themselves in ways traditionally attributed to men.

Although it has usually not been stated explicitly, conditions regarding participation involved: regular attendance, a willingness to relate personal experiences and refrainment from judging or challenging other group members. Advice giving has been frowned upon.

The participants of consciousness raising groups have not considered these to be therapeutic in the traditional sense, since women's problems have not been viewed as the result of personal dynamics or emotional histories. Rather, psychological isolation caused by the culturally defined nature of male-female relationships was perceived as being at the core of their difficulties. Other reasons provided for the groups' "non-therapeutic" emphasis have included the fact that the therapeutic profession has tended to be dominated by males and dissatisfaction with sex roles has often been interpreted by them as being psychopathological.

A variety of changes has been described as the outcome of the consciousness-raising process. Included in these, claims have been: increased feelings of self esteem and self worth, decreased feelings of guilt, self-hatred, and personal inadequacy, departure from the traditonal sex role

stereotypes and increased autonomy. Authors have also suggested that the consciousness-raising process fosters the development of a genuine liking for other women, the overt expression of anger and the airing of problems which are not related to personal inadequacy, but due to female oppression.

Research on Consciousness-Raising Groups. In addition to these general descriptions and comments about consciousness-raising groups, other authors have attempted to gain insight into their effectiveness, sometimes in comparison with other group methods and procedures. Only a limited number of studies appeared to be available.

Kincaid (1973) studied the effectiveness of a consciousness-raising group program in terms of the altering of women's role perceptions, views of themselves and attitudes towards other women. Forty-eight community college students, all older than 28 years, formed experimental and control groups. The "experimentals" were presented with a structured program, the focus of which was on cultural role definitions, decision making and conflict resolution. The control group consisted largely of females involved in consciousness-raising activities, without any prescribed focus. Subjects were tested by means of an Inventory on Female Values (IFV), the Personal Orientation Inventory (POI), and the Philosophies of Human Nature scale (PHN).

Results showed no difference between the groups in reduction of discrepancy between the view of the real self

and that of the ideal woman as measured by IFV. However the experimental group displayed a change from other-to-self-orientation in view of the real self and the view of the ideal woman. No differences were shown by the groups in their change in positive attitude towards other women as evaluated by the PHN. The author concluded that the treatment (a structured program) failed to reduce discrepancies, although it was seen as producing greater potential for self-actualization.

Eastman (1973), who interviewed 11 participants after 25 consciousness-raising groups sessions reported that the group had not only provided a new experience and "language" but also that shifts in identity, self-understanding and world-view were obvious. In addition to an increased sense of well-being, the group members also reported greater autonomy, changes in the negotiation of interpersonal relationships and more self-knowledge.

The effects of consciousness-raising groups and other groups methods on the sex role stereotyping by college students, staff and faculty members were studied by Erskine (1974). The subjects were divided into four groups: first three groups comprising males, females and both sexes respectively; these had a structured program with female leaders who were experienced in counselling, feminism and leadership. The fourth group was constructed and functioned as much as possible like the feminist consciousness-raising

groups. Results of the study suggested that none of the group procedures had an impact on attitudes towards women or sex role stereotyping. However, subjects from the "structure-mixed" group appeared to be much more satisfied and ego-involved with the group program than those in any of the other groups.

In 1973, Nygard divided students into four treatment groups. One group received five lectures on the psychological aspects of womens' roles. A second group was a leaderless consciousness-raising group and received typewritten copies of the lectures, while a third, similar, group was not provided with such information by the investigator. A fourth group, sensitized to sex role stereotypes, served as a control.

A group of CPI and SVIB scales were used to measure shifts from feminine to masculine interests. However, no significant differences were found either within or between groups. The author ascribed these results to the stability of the scales and measurements over a short period of time.

Wolfe and Fodor (1975) considered rational-behavioral oriented therapy more helpful for assertiveness training than consciousness-raising. The rational-behavioral therapy may take the place during intensive one day workshops or during weekly meetings over a period of two months. The authors perceived the main difference between the two methods and procedures to consist of an action component. Where

members of the consciousness-raising groups mainly discuss and share experiences, the therapy involves cognitive behavioral homework, role playing and also the disclosure of self-interested non-stereotypical female goals and behaviours by women. Such goals and behaviours are positively reinforced by their fellow group members.

Other Group Work. Finally, two group programs will be described which were not instigated for research purposes. Both programs were much more structured than the consciousness-raising groups.

Manis and Mochizuki (1972) related that an increasing number of women present themselves to counsellors with statements along these lines:

"I want to do something, but I don't know what".

"I feel so stupid, such a failure".

"Perhaps I shouldn't take the time away from my family".

"I would like to find out where my skills fit into the job market".

"I feel worthless".

"I feel a lack of confidence in dealing with problems and have become more and more depressed".

"I've been out of it too long".

"Well, this is the way I am", when presented with a sounding board reflecting negative attitudes.

"My husband wouldn't like it" when discussing new activities.

The majority of these women were housewives, who had a limited range of experience in mainly socially accepted occupations (teaching, sales, nursing, office work and generally socially oriented work). The average age was 38 years, they were mothers of an average of three children, the youngest one being nine years old. Fifty-four percent was uncertain of what to do in the future; 40% was thinking of a "new field" and 28% had notions about continuing education.

The authors involved the women in groupwork which consisted mainly of three activities; small group interaction, testing and homework assignments. The goals were five-fold: (1) to give support, build trust, share concern, relieve guilt and learn to work in groups; (2) to learn to communicate and improve interpersonal relationships; (3) to build self-confidence and understanding of self and abilities; (4) to become responsible, to learn to make decisions and take risks and (5) to learn about opportunities in the outside world (e.g., education, volunteer employment, creative self-expression).

A group program titled "A Second Look", similar in form and content to that by Manis and Mochuzuki (1972) and with similar subjects, was initiated in 1969 by the Department (now Faculty) of Extension of the University of Alberta, Edmonton. The program lasted 12 weeks for each group and the content included large and small group discussions, problem solving situations, exercises to improve interper-

sonal and communication skills. Presentations were made by employers, educational institutions and volunteer organizations. Extensive psychological testing, aimed at gaining insight into abilities, potentials, strengths and weaknesses was also conducted. Much of the focus of the program was on sex role stereotyping, the changing role of women, the feasibility of making individual changes in life circumstances and the implications involved. At the conclusion of the program, the women were provided with feedback in the form of a private letter from the group leader, which included suggestions about possible courses of actions or changes. Participants were invited to discuss these suggestions and the findings from the testing in an individual counselling interview.

Summary. The rapid emergence of consciousness-raising groups has attested to the need for and interest in group work by and with women. Until recently such groupwork was seldom considered by counselling practitioners and it occurred only sparsely. The available research about the consciousness-raising groups has been rather inconclusive in its findings, especially when results are compared with different forms of groupwork. One of the reasons for this has been the limited number of studies that has been conducted up to this point in time.

There are some concerns that should be considered. Firstly, it is feasible that research may be difficult to

initiate, because of the apparent anti-psychology attitudes of the individuals participating in those groups. When reading the literature one perceived at times a hostile attitude towards any endeavour aimed at investigation. At times this appeared to be caused by the identification of psychology with the majority of its practitioners, i.e., men.

A second concern is that the very nature of the consciousness-raising groups may very well have discouraged and will continue discouraging the participation of a segment of the female population most in need of some form of counselling. That segment consists of the "traditional" housewives, who do not feel at ease at all in a semi-radical atmosphere. Possibly, these women would benefit more from the fairly structured kind of groups as developed by Manis and Mochizuki (1972) and the Department of Extension at the University of Alberta. If such is the case, it would also mean that groups of this type are badly needed.

Recapitulation

It is suggested that the information which has been provided up to this point could be recapitulated and interpreted in the following manner:

The ascribing of sex roles results in the stereotyping of functional competencies and has a stifling effect on the healthy development of human beings. This effect is especially detrimental to the development of females, since

inherent in the stereotyping of the female sex is an emphasis on incompetency rather than competency. In other words, females frequently encounter negative responses to a relatively wide range of their potentials and activities. They are more often faced with the discouragement of what they should not, cannot, may not and will not do and be, than the encouragement of what they shall, can, may and will be capable of. Ultimately, these negative responses become internalized, which results in negative self-concepts, lack of self-confidence, lack of achievement motivation and other incapacitating psychological dynamics which interfere with the development of a realistically healthy self-awareness. Factors which are of influence on this process of internalization are probably many and include the frequency and intensity of role ascribing situations, role modelling opportunities and probably the sensitivity and intelligence of the subject.

When internalization has been extensive, females conform to and therefore display the expected stereotypical "feminine" characteristics of personality, behaviour and interests as described in Chapters I and II. A less successful internalization process of the female sex role results in the acceptance and expression of a wider range of potentials and activities and the concurrent "masculine" behaviours and interests, which are valued by society at large, but only when displayed by males.

While referring to the biological and environmental factors at the basis of "masculine" and "feminine" characteristics, it also appears that these terms are rather counterproductive and only serve to perpetuate existing but limiting concepts about males and females. A more valid approach would be to perceive the "masculine-feminine" dimension as pertaining to different aspects of development.

There have been indications that environmental factors influence psychological growth and the development of self-awareness (Lerner, 1976; Langer, 1969; Loevinger, 1976). This means that changes in life circumstances may cause changes in the masculinity and/or femininity of personality and interests of women. The most likely areas of change in the circumstances of the female population involve occupational and marital status, level of education, skill development and intra and interpersonal relationships and values. The different forms of groupwork with women have focussed on the creation of this self-awareness and the enactment of such changes in life circumstances. There have not yet been any definite indications that the efforts have been successful.

It is also debatable whether attitudes towards women and feminism have changed or are changing from negative and discouraging to positive and encouraging. However, there have been indications that understanding that the feminist movement is basically a phenomenon related to many

other psychosocial changes, has an obvious positive influence. This understanding can be expected and has been demonstrated to occur most frequently among those with a more extensive educational background and among those who have been more directly related or exposed to the changes that have been taking place.

Operational Definitions

In order to test the hypotheses in this study several terms were operationally defined.

The masculine-feminine personality dimension was established by the selection of seven relevant scales of the CPI. These included: dominance, capacity for status, sociability, self-acceptance, tolerance, achievement via independence and intellectual efficiency.

Criteria for a masculine personality profile were based on consistently high scores on five of these seven scales.

Criteria for a feminine personality profile were based on consistently low scores on five of these seven scales.

Masculine and feminine interests were established by selection of six relevant scales of the SVIB for each category. The masculine scales included: lawyer, psychologist, physician, engineer, computor programmer and math science teacher. The feminine scales selected were: home economics, business education and elementary teacher, dietitian, nurse and secretary.

Criteria for a masculine interest profile were based on consistently high scores on four of the relevant six scales.

Criteria for a feminine interest profile were based on consistently high scores on four of the relevant six scales.

Changers were selected on the basis of self-reported meaningful changes made in life circumstances between initial and follow-up testing.

Non-changers were individuals who did not meet the criteria for changers.

More detailed information regarding the procedures involved in these selection processes have been provided in Chapter III.

Hypotheses

Study I. The hypotheses in this study applied to subjects who completed psychological tests during the group program "A Second Look" from 1969 to 1972.

I. There is a positive relationship between the masculine-feminine personality dimension and masculine vocational interests.

II. There is a negative relationship between the masculine-feminine personality dimension and feminine vocational interests.

III. Subjects with a masculine personality profile have stronger masculine vocational interests than subjects with a feminine personality profile.

IV. There is no difference in feminine vocational interests between subjects with masculine and feminine personality profiles.

V. There is no difference in intellectual ability between subjects with masculine and feminine personality profiles.

VI. There is no difference in intellectual ability between subjects with masculine and feminine vocational interest profiles.

Study II. The hypotheses in this study applied to subjects who completed psychological tests initially during the group program "A Second Look" from 1969 to 1972 and again during a follow-up in July, 1977.

Regarding initial testing:

I. Changers display a more masculine personality than non-changers.

II. There is no difference in social conformity between changers and non-changers.

III. Changers display stronger vocational interests than non-changers.

IV. There is no difference in feminine vocational interests between changers and non-changers.

Regarding results from initial to follow-up testing:

V(a) There is an increase in masculine personality for changers.

(b) There is no difference in masculine personality for non-changers.

VI.(a) There is a decrease in social conformity for changers.

(b) There is no difference in social conformity for non-changers.

VII.(a) There is an increase in masculine vocational interests for changers.

(b) There is no difference in masculine vocational interests for non-changers.

(c) There is no difference in feminine vocational interests for changers.

(d) There is no difference in feminine vocational interests for non-changers.

Regarding follow-up testing:

VIII. There is a positive correlation between the masculine-feminine personality dimension and attitude towards the feminist movement.

IX. Husbands of changers display a more positive attitude towards the feminist movement than husbands of non-changers.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Study I

Subjects

The original sample consisted of 275 housewives who had voluntarily enrolled in a program for women called "A Second Look", between the fall of 1969 and spring of 1972. The program was offered by the Department of Extension of the University of Alberta, Edmonton, Alberta. From the original sample complete sets of data were obtained for a total of 124 women. This latter group comprised the sample for this portion of the study.

Demographic, educational and vocational information was available on each of the 124 subjects and has been presented in the following sections.

Age distribution. The distribution of subjects by age was as follows: 20 to 30 years - 4.5%; 31 to 40 years - 47.7%; 41 to 50 years - 37.3%; 51 to 60 years - 10.5%.

Marital status. The distribution of subjects according to marital status was as follows: married - 91.2%; divorced - 4.4%; widowed - 2.9%; single - 1.5%.

Family size. The women had an average of 3.2 children with 2.8 of these still living at home. The average age of the children was 12.7 years.

Educational background. The distribution of subjects according to level of education achieved was as follows:

junior high school - 4.4%; some high school - 28.0%; high school graduates - 31.0%; diploma courses (nursing, teaching) - 7.3%; some university - 11.8%; university degree - 10.3%. In addition, 22% of the subjects had some business or secretarial training. The figures did not total 100% due to overlap in recording of school level attainment and/or business and diploma training.

Patterns of employment. Of the 124 women, 91.2% worked before marriage for an average of 4.1 years, while 75% was employed after marriage for an average of 3.0 years. Types of working experiences with the accompanying percentages of the women with these types of experience were as follows: secretarial, bookkeeping, banking - 51.8%; semi-professional (e.g. lab technician, dental assistants) - 14.3%; professional (e.g., nursing, teaching) - 28.6%; semi- or nonskilled (e.g., housekeeping, factory work) - 3.0%.

Instruments

California Psychological Inventory (CPI). The first scales of what was to become the CPI were developed in 1948 by Harrison Gough. The initial CPI was published in 1951, containing 15 scales. An expanded version with 18 scales appeared in 1957 with the first complete manual also becoming available at that time. Revisions took place in 1960, 1964 and 1969. In the meantime the number of studies about the inventory increased steadily, so that 25 years after the initial construction, the literature contained

more than 600 varied investigations.

The question booklet contains 480 items, which relate to "everyday" behaviour patterns, feelings and opinions. Respondents indicate in via "true or false" on a separate answer sheet whether they agree or disagree with each statement. Answers are handscored for 18 scales which have been divided into four groups on a profile sheet. Class I measures poise, ascendancy, self-assurance and interpersonal adequacy. The scales are: Dominance (Do), Capacity for status (Cs), Sociability (Sy), Social presence (Sp), Self-acceptance (Sa) and Sense of well-being (Wb). Class II scales measure socialization, maturity, responsibility, and intrapersonal structuring of values. The scales are: Responsibility (Re), Socialization (So), Self-control (Sc), Tolerance (To), Good impression (Gi), and Commonality (Cm). Class III groups together scales relating to achievement potential and intellectual efficiency. These are: Achievement via conformance (Ac), Achievement via independence (Ai), and Intellectual efficiency (Ie). The last group, Class IV is described as measuring intellectual interest modes. The scales include Psychological mindedness (Py), Flexibility (Fx) and Femininity (Fe).

The manual contains an intercorrelation matrix for the CPI scales and matrices for correlations with vocational interest tests (e.g. SVIB), other personality tests (e.g.,

MMPI and Bernreuter) and measures of intellectual functioning (e.g., Terman concept mastery, Guilford creativity).

Raw scores, means and standard deviation scores for a variety of educational, occupational and miscellaneous samples of males and females have also been made available. These samples involve such groups as high school students, military officers, nurses, airline stewardesses, prison guards and inmates.

The following scales of the CPI were selected in order to measure the masculine-feminine personality dimension, since their description (Gough, 1964; Megargee, 1972) is most congruent with the stereotypical ones encountered in the literature: Do, Cs, Sy, Sa, To, Ai and Ie. The intercorrelation of these scales ranges from .17 to .70. The scales have been labelled CPI-MF; high scores are indicative of "masculinity" and low scores of "femininity".

Test-retest correlations indicative of the reliability of these scales have been reported by Gough (1964). For each separate scale the range of coefficients was as follows: Do(.64-.80), Cs(.62-.80), Sy(.68-.84), Sa(.67-.71), To(.61-.87), Ai(.57-.71) and Ie(.74-.80).

Gough (1964) also presented statistics relating to the validity of the scales. These appear most frequently in the form of significant differences in scores between groups which have been described as having contrasting characteristics in terms of the specific scale under investigation.

The evaluators of subjects and characteristics usually consisted of staff of the institutions (high school, university, army) attended by the subjects. All differences have been reported to be significant at the .01 or .05 level. Where correlations coefficients with other scales measuring similar characteristics have been available, these ranged from .32 (Sa) to .48 (Cs).

Strong Vocational Interest Blank (SVIB). The first women's form of the SVIB was published in 1933 by E.K. Strong Jr.. It had 410 items. Revisions took place in 1938 and 1969, sifting out and replacing poorer items in the process. For the purpose of the current study, subjects completed the TW 398 form (Campbell, 1971) which contains 398 items. These are grouped as relating to occupations (128), amusements (42), activities (45), types of people (40), order of preference of activities (40) preference between two items (38), abilities and characteristics (28) and school subjects (27). The items are answered on a separate answer sheet in "Like-indifferent-dislike" fashion for most, while some are answered in the form of "yes, don't know or no". Answers are scored by computor which produces a "basic interest" profile, including such categories as "public speaking", "numbers", "teaching", "outdoors" and 15 other forms of activity. In addition, results are produced in groups of "occupational scales" including performing arts, fine arts, social service, verbal-linguistic, verbal scien-

tific, scientific, military, business, home economics, health oriented, and semi or non-professional.

For the purpose of the current study the following scales were selected to measure feminine vocational interests: business education teacher, home economics teacher, elementary teacher, dietitian, nurse, and secretary. These occupations have been labelled SVIB-F. The reported range of intercorrelations for these scales was from - .06 to .82 (Campbell, 1971).

For the measuring of masculine vocational interests, the following scales were selected: lawyer, psychologist, physician, math-science teacher, engineer and computor programmer. These occupations have been referred to as SVIB-M. The reported range of intercorrelations is - .17 to .74 (Campbell, 1971).

The occupational scales were selected as the description of them was congruent with the description of stereotypical masculine and feminine vocational interests presented in the literature.

Campbell (1971) provided data regarding the reliability and validity of the scales. For a variety of samples the test-retest reliabilities for the SVIB-F and SVIB-M selected for this study ranged from .38 to .81 and from .37 to .80 respectively. Validity has been reported in terms of percentage overlap in similarity of responses between "women in general" and individuals in the occupation under investi-

gation. For all scales the range of overlap was from 16% (Engineer) to 42% (Librarian). Overlap percentages concerning the occupational scales selected for this study ranged from 16 (Engineer) to 41 (Math-Science teacher).

Ohio State University Psychological Test (OHIO). The OHIO was designed to evaluate scholastic aptitude. The test was first constructed in 1920 and 20 different forms were published between 1921 and 1938. It is of the "power-type" variety and is composed of three parts: same-opposites, word relationships and reading comprehension. The manual (Toops, 1965) provides a split-half reliability coefficient of .93 for 300 cases and a predictive validity coefficient of .68 based on 1030 cases over 36 weeks. High School and college norms are available.

Questionnaire. In order to obtain background information regarding demographic, occupational, educational and personal variables, a questionnaire was designed and has been shown in Appendix A.

Procedure

The CPI, OHIO, SVIB and the background information questionnaire were administered to the subjects in testing sessions spaced over the 10 - 12 week group program. Each individual test was completed entirely during one session of approximately three hours. The data were obtained during the period of fall, 1969 to spring, 1972.

Statistical Analysis

All CPI-MF raw scores were converted to standard scores by means of the tables available in the manual. For each subject mean scores were calculated for the 7 CPI-MF scales, the 6 SVIB-M scales and the 6 SVIB-F scales. The raw scores of the OHIO were converted to percentile scores.

For the testing of hypothesis I the correlation coefficient between mean CPI-MF scores and mean SVIB-M scores was obtained and tested for significance, using a t-test.

For the testing of hypothesis II the correlation coefficient between mean CPI-MF scores and mean SVIB-F scores was obtained and tested for significance, using a t-test.

Subjects with "masculine" and "feminine" personality profiles were needed for the testing of hypotheses III, IV and V. These profiles were established in the following manner. Subjects who obtained a mean standard score of 60 or higher (1 standard deviation above the mean) over any 5 of the 7 CPI-MF scales, were considered to display a masculine personality profile. Thirty-one subjects were thus identified. Subjects who obtained a mean standard score of 40 or lower (1 standard deviation below the mean) over any 5 of the 7 CPI-MF scales were considered to display a feminine personality profile. Sixty-six subjects were thus identified.

Subjects with masculine personality profiles (N=31)

and those with feminine personality profiles (N=66) were compared using SVIB-M scores in hypothesis III and SVIB-F scores in hypothesis IV. These hypotheses were tested using a one way analysis of variance.

For hypothesis V, there were 24 subjects for whom both a masculine personality profile and an OHIO score were available, while the OHIO was completed by 32 subjects with a feminine personality profile. Hypothesis V was also tested using a one-way analysis of variance.

Subjects with "masculine" and "feminine" vocational profiles were needed for the testing of hypothesis VI. These profiles were established in the manner described as follows. Subjects who obtained a mean score of 40 or higher (B+ and A range) over any 4 of the relevant 6 SVIB-M scales were considered to display a masculine vocational profile. Twenty-two subjects were found to have masculine vocational profiles, using this procedure. Similarly, subjects who obtained a mean score of 40 or higher (B+ and A range) over any 4 of the relevant 6 SVIB-F scales were considered to display a feminine vocational profile. In this manner, fifty-one subjects were categorized as having feminine vocational profiles. The number of subjects with a masculine vocational profile who also completed the OHIO was 20 while the number of subjects with a feminine vocational profile who also completed the OHIO was 22. Hypothesis VI was tested by means of a one-way analysis of variance.

Study II

Subjects

Of the original sample of 275 women, who participated in "A Second Look", 127 could be contacted again in the summer of 1977 regarding possible testing for a follow-up study. Approximately 90 of the 127 responded to a request for cooperation, however, complete sets of initial and follow-up data could be compiled for only 50 subjects. Demographic data in the form of age distribution, marital status and educational information for the 50 subjects have been shown in Tables III, IV AND V.

TABLE III

Age Distribution of Subjects Participating in Follow-up Study, In Percentages (N=50)

Age group in years	Initial testing 1969-1972	Follow-up testing July, 1977
26-30	4	0
31-35	14	2
36-40	30	12
41-45	24	18
46-50	14	34
51-55	14	12
56-60	0	18
61-65	0	4
Average age	41.78 yrs.	48.56 yrs.

TABLE IV

Marital Status of Subjects Participating in Follow-up Study, in Percentages (N=50)

Marital Status	Initial testing 1969 - 1972	Follow-up testing July, 1977
Married	90	80
Divorced	4	12
Widowed	6	8
Single	0	0

TABLE V

Educational Background of Subjects Participating in Follow-up Study, in Percentages (N=50)

Educational Background	Initial testing 1969 - 1972	Follow-up testing July, 1977
Junior high school	4	2
Some high school	36	22
High school graduate	32	22
Diploma courses	6	14
Some university	10	24
University degree	12	16

Of the 50 subjects, a group of 27 "changers" was selected according to three criteria:

1) In the follow-up questionnaire they reported that they had made meaningful positive changes in at least two of four areas. They had a) continued their education, b) learned a new skill or trade, c) started a new job or d) improved relationship with self.
2) The changes took place between the initial group program and the time of follow-up.
3) The reported changes were verified by means of comparison with the information available on the initial questionnaire.

"Non-changers" were subjects who reported that they had not made meaningful positive changes or who did not qualify under the criteria established for changers. A total of 23 non-changers were identified by means of this procedure.

Husbands of the 50 subjects were asked to complete tests at follow-up. Since some subjects were widowed or divorced and also, because there were husbands who refused to complete tests, the husband group consisted of 35 subjects. Of these, 20 were married to changers and 15 to non-changers.

Instruments

California Psychological Inventory (CPI). In order to measure the masculine-feminine personality dimension, the

CPI-MF scales identified in Study I were used again in Study II.

Megargee (1972, p.119) outlined a cluster of five scales as measuring a social conformity (intrapersonal values) dimension. These were Wb, Re, Sc, Gi and Ac. The reported range of intercorrelations for these was from .49 to .78, with Sc apparently being almost a pure measure of the factor. The five scales (Wb, Re, Sc, Gi and Ac) have been selected for testing of the relevant hypotheses and they have been labelled as CPI-SC.

The reliability and validity of the scales was investigated by Gough (1964). Test-retest correlation coefficients indicative of reliability were provided for different samples. For each separate scale the range is as follows: Wb (.70 - .75), Re (.65 - .85), Sc (.68 - .86), Gi (.68 - .81) and Ac (.60 - .79). Methods similar to those used in obtaining validity data for the CPI-MF scales were used in this case. That is, either groups with contrasting characteristics were investigated for significance of differences in scores on each scale, or correlation coefficients with other scales measuring similar characteristics were calculated. The differences were all significant at the .01 level, while the range of correlation coefficients provided in the manual was from .27 (Wb) to .60 (Gi).

Strong Vocational Interest Blank (SVIB). The same scales used in Study I were employed here. A description

of the scales along with validity and reliability information may be found in Study I.

Attitude Toward Feminism Scale (FEM). In order to measure attitudes toward feminism, the FEM scale developed by Smith, Ferree and Miller (1975) was selected (See Appendix B). Several other scales which purported to assess such attitudes were available (e.g., Kirkpatrick, 1936; Spence and Helmreich, 1972; Werner, 1973). However, the FEM scale was considered to have several advantages: (1) It is in Likert format with five response alternatives; (2) it was the most recently developed scale; and (3) it is simple to administer. The authors have factoranalyzed the scale, providing test-retest reliability data (r_{20}=.91) and they have tested it with two different samples. Finally, it was available in its entirety in the literature and the authors invited others to conduct research with the scales.

Questionnaire. In addition to the initial questionnaire used for Study I, a follow-up questionnaire was also designed (see Appendix C), with the purpose being to investigate possible changes, specifically in life circumstances.

Procedure

The CPI, SVIB and background information questionnaire were administered to subjects during the initial group program between the fall of 1969 and the spring of 1972. All subjects participated in the program for women titled

"A Second Look". Follow-up testing was conducted in July, 1977 when subjects were invited to a reunion-like meeting. At the meeting, the CPI and SVIB were re-administered while the FEM and follow-up questionnaire were completed for the first time. Those subjects who could not attend but who wished to participate in the follow-up testing were provided with materials to complete at home.

Husbands of subjects completed the FEM at home in July, 1977.

Statistical Analysis

CPI raw scores were transformed to standard scores by means of the tables available in the manual (Gough, 1964). For each subject mean scores for the 7 CPI-MF scales and the 5 CPI-SC scales, the 6 SVIB-M scales and the 6 SVIB-F scales were calculated.

FEM answers were given a value between 1 and 5, with the lower number assigned to less positive attitudes and the higher number to more positive attitudes. Totals were obtained for each subject.

The analysis used to investigate hypotheses I through VII, was a two factor analysis of variance with repeated measures. In order to obtain the differences between all possible means, the Newman-Keuls Method (Winer, 1971) was selected.

Hypothesis VIII was tested by means of a test of significance for a Pearson product moment correlation coeffic-

ient.

Hypothesis IX was tested by means of a two-tailed t-test.

Limitations

The studies have several limitations. Firstly, the sample was self-selected in that participation in the "A Second Look" program and the follow-up were voluntary. Generalization of the results was therefore limited to the population of housewives who were actively interested in that program. Also, the fact that only approximately 50% of initial participants were found to reside at their original addresses when it was attempted to make contact regarding the follow-up, may have influenced the nature of the sample.

Secondly, the group program was not initiated with the intention to conduct research. This is the reason that only follow-up and no initial attitude measures were available. A comparison in the terms of the FEM dimension would have been meaningful and interesting.

Lastly, no "treatment" has been included in the discussion of methodology (Chapter III), since an "after the facts" definition of a treatment did not appear to be appropriate. It would have been difficult to decide (or measure) in how far the group program could have been considered to be part or cause of the changes in life circumstances.

Summary. Subjects, instruments, procedures and statistical analyses for both Study I and Study II have been described. The limitations of both studies were briefly discussed.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Study I

Hypothesis I and II were tested by means of a t-test for a Pearson product moment correlation coefficient.

Hypothesis I. It was stated that a positive relationship would exist between the masculine-feminine personality dimension (CPI-MF) and masculine vocational interests (SVIB-M). The result was a positive correlation ($r=0.363$, $N=124$) and a level of significance of p .001 ($t=4.298$, d.f. 122). It was concluded that the hypothesis was confirmed.

Hypothesis II. It was predicted that a negative relationship would exist between the masculine-feminine personality dimension (CPI-MF) and feminine vocational interests (SVIB-F). The result was a negative correlation ($r=-0.319$, $N=124$) and a level of signficance of p .001 ($t=-3.72$, d. f. 122). Hypothesis II was also confirmed.

Hypothesis III through VI of Study I were tested by means of a one way analysis of variance. Homogeneity of variances were found to be acceptable by means of Bartlett's test (Winer, 1971).

Hypothesis III. It was hypothesized that subjects with a masculine personality profile (N=23) would have stronger masculine vocational interests (SVIB-M) than subjects with a feminine personality profile (N=68). The results were a

mean score of 28.07 for the subjects with masculine personality profiles and of 21.18 for individuals with feminine personality profiles; F=14.03 (d.f.1,89) and the level of significance was p .0001. The hypothesis was confirmed.

Hypothesis IV. It was predicted that no difference would exist in feminine vocational interests (SVIB-F) between subjects with masculine personality profiles (N=23) and those with feminine personality profiles (N=68). The results were mean scores of 25.46 and 32.72 for the individuals with masculine personality profiles and feminine personality profiles respectively; F=20.77 (d.f.1,89) with a significance level of p .0001. The hypothesis was rejected, it was concluded that significance differences existed between the two groups of subjects.

Hypothesis V. It was hypothesized that no difference would exist in intellectual ability (OHIO), between individuals with masculine personality profiles (N=24) and feminine personality profiles (N=32). The mean scores obtained were 80.79 and 68.06 for individuals with masculine personality profiles and feminine personality profiles respectively; F=4.90 (d.f.1,54) and the level of significance was p .0312. The hypothesis was rejected, it was concluded that significance differences existed between the two groups of individuals.

Hypothesis VI. It was stated that no difference would

exist in intellectual ability (OHIO), between subjects with masculine vocational interest profiles (N=20) and feminine vocational interest profiles (N=22). The results were mean scores of 83.85 for subjects with masculine vocational profiles and of 57.14 for individuals with feminine vocational profiles; F=17.77 (d.f.1,40) with a level of significance of p .0001. The hypothesis was rejected. The results indicated that significant differences did exist between the two groups of subjects.

Study II

Hypotheses I through IV of Study II related to data obtained from changers and non-changers during the initial testing period between fall, 1969 and spring, 1972. These hypotheses were tested by means of a two factor analysis of variance for repeated measures. Tests on the differences between pairs of means were applied by means of the Newman-Keuls method (Winer, 1971). The hypotheses tested, measures used, results obtained and conclusions reached have been shown in Table VI.

Hypotheses V through VII of Study II related to data obtained from changers and non-changers during initial testing (1969-72) and follow-up testing (1977). These hypotheses were tested by means of a two factor analysis of variance for repeated measures. Tests on the differences between pairs of means were applied by means of the Newman-

Keuls method (Winer, 1971). The hypotheses tested, measures used, results obtained and conclusions reached have been shown in Table VII.

Hypothesis VIII of Study II. It was stated that a positive relation would exist between the masculine-feminine personality dimension (CPI-MF) and attitudes towards feminism (FEM). Mean scores on the CPI-MF and raw scores on the FEM were correlated for all 50 subjects who participated in the follow-up. A t-test for a Pearson product moment correlation coefficient was applied. A positive correlation was obtained ($r=0.485$) and a level of significance of p .001 ($t=3.014$, d.f.48). The hypothesis was confirmed.

Hypothesis IX of Study II. It was predicted that husbands of changers (N=20) would display a more positive attitude towards feminism than husbands of non-changers (N=15). The hypothesis was tested by means of a two-tailed t-test. The mean scores on the FEM were 65.4 and 67.73 for husbands of changers and non-changers respectively. The results were $t=0.73$ (d.f.33) and a not significant level of difference. The hypothesis was rejected.

TABLE VI

Hypotheses and Data Related to Initial Testing of Changers* and Non-changers** in Study II

	Hypotheses	Measure used	MEAN SCORES Changers	Non-changers	q	D.f.	Significance
I	Changers display a more masculine personality than non-changers.	CPI-MF	46.44	50.16	0.50	1,48	N.S. Hypothesis rejected
II	There is no difference in social conformity between changers and non-changers.	CPI-SC	45.16	48.40	0.44	1,48	N.S. Hypothesis confirmed
III	Changers display stronger masculine vocational interests than non-changers.	SVIB-M	24.84	29.34	0.55	1,48	N.S. Hypothesis rejected
IV	There is no difference in feminine vocational interests between changers and non-changers.	SVIB-F	33.70	30.73	0.37	1,48	N.S. Hypothesis confirmed

(* N=27 ** N=23)

TABLE VII

Hypotheses and Data Related to Initial and Follow-up Testing of Changers* and Non-changers** in Study II

	Hypotheses	Measure used	MEAN SCORES Initial	Follow-up	q	D.F.	Significance
Va	There is an increase in masculine personality traits for changers.	CPI-MF	46.44	49.97	5.79	1,52	$p<.01$ Hypothesis confirmed
Vb	There is no difference in masculine personality traits for non-changers.	CPI-MF	50.16	49.83	0.5	1,44	N.S. Hypothesis confirmed
VIa	There is a decrease in social conformity for non-changers.	CPI-SC	45.16	45.84	0.20	1,52	N.S. Hypothesis rejected
VIb	There is no difference in social conformity for non-changers.	CPI-SC	48.40	46.58	2.46	1,44	N.S. Hypothesis confirmed

(CONTINUED)

TABLE VII (CONTINUED)

VIIa	There is an increase in masculine vocational interests for changers	SVIB-M	24.84	27.44	4.06	1,52	$p<.01$ Hypothesis confirmed
VIIb	There is no difference in masculine vocational interests for non-changers.	SVIB-M	29.34	28.06	1.85	1,44	N.S. Hypothesis confirmed
VIIc	There is no difference in feminine vocational interests for changers	SVIB-F	33.70	30.55	4.85	1,52	$p<.01$ Hypothesis rejected
VIId	There is no difference in feminine vocational interests for non-changers.	SVIB-F	30.73	31.17	0.62	1,44	N.S. Hypothesis confirmed

(*N=27 **N=23)

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

Study I

Hypothesis I which predicted that a positive relationship existed between the masculine-feminine personality dimension and masculine vocational interests was confirmed. Confirmation was also obtained for hypothesis II, which stated that the masculine-feminine personality dimension was negatively related to feminine vocational interests. In other words, the masculine personalities were directly related to masculine vocational interests and inversely to feminine vocational interests. These findings for housewives were similar to those reported in the literature where samples generally consisted of female students. It appears to be likely then, that the relevant masculine and feminine characteristics formed prior to or during adolescence and early adulthood, tended to persist in later stages of adulthood.

Additional insight was obtained by contrasting individuals with pronounced masculine and feminine personality profiles, with such profiles being located at opposite ends of the CPI-MF scales. The relevant hypotheses predicted stronger masculine vocational interests for the subjects with masculine personality profiles (Hypothesis III), but no differences between the two groups in feminine vocational interests (Hypothesis IV). Hypothesis III was confirmed, but

hypothesis IV was rejected. Individuals with masculine personality profiles demonstrated both stronger masculine interests and weaker feminine interests than those with feminine personality profiles. This latter outcome has only occasionally been obtained with students as subjects. In other words, studies with students usually indicated that masculine personalities were interested in masculine as well as feminine vocations.

One possible explanation for the difference in results between housewives and students might be the following. The housewives had actually been involved in "feminine" work and experienced what it entailed. Because of basic personality characteristics the masculine subjects may have come to reject this kind of work, while the feminine individuals might have learned to accept it. On the other hand, students have not yet had the opportunity to actually experience the nature of feminine work and therefore could not have come to accept or reject it either.

Hypothesis V predicted that no differences existed in intellectual abilities between subjects with masculine and feminine personality profiles while hypothesis VI made the same prediction for individuals with masculine and feminine vocational interest profiles. Both hypothesis were rejected. While generally no significant differences in intellectual abilities between subjects in such groups of individuals have been reported (only occasional occurrences), the differ-

ences in the current study were very pronounced. More specifically, those with the masculine profiles obtained the higher scores. Other than the obviously stereotypical and therefore not really acceptable explanation (i.e. masculine individuals are generally more capable), there may be a more valid reason why the masculine and feminine housewives performed differently from students with similar characteristics. This reason may be found in the nature of the tests used. The OHIO, administered to the housewives, is a "powertype" test; its emphasis is on the measuring of academic potentials. It should be noted that this test was not used in any of the reported studies. In general, researchers had applied tests measuring the obtained level of academic achievement, when students were subjects. Although the aim and purpose of the two kinds of tests can not be clearly separated, they may be sufficiently divergent to account for the difference in findings.

An investigation of background data concerning the housewives provided information in congruence with their performance on the intellectual ability testing. In general, the individuals with masculine profiles had completed a minimum of grade XII in high school while their counterparts had obtained approximately a grade X to XI level. Subjects with some university education were disproportionately represented in the masculine profile groups (average of 38% versus 14%). Furthermore, they had more frequently been

involved in courses or programs for self-improvement, than those in the feminine groups.

In summary, it appeared that individuals with the stronger masculine personality traits also displayed greater masculine vocational interests and higher intellectual abilities, but weaker feminine vocational interests than their counterparts. The findings for housewives in terms of intellectual abilities and feminine interests tended to differ from those obtained with students.

Study II

It was predicted that changers would display stronger masculine personalities (Hypothesis I) and greater interest in masculine vocations (Hypothesis III) than non-changers. No differences were predicted between the two groups of subjects in terms of social conformity (Hypothesis II) and feminine vocational interests (Hypothesis IV). No significant differences were found for any of the four comparisons between the changers and non-changers. In other words, on initial testing the two groups of individuals were equivalent in terms of masculine personalities, social conformity, masculine and feminine vocational interests.

The results regarding hypotheses I and III were somewhat surprising, since it had been expected and anticipated that changers would display more "masculinity" than non-changers. The making of changes in life-circumstances would appear to require a degree of assertiveness, confidence and

orientation towards action, all considered to be masculine characteristics.

It was predicted that changers would display an increase in masculine personality traits (Hypothesis Va) and masculine vocational interests (Hypothesis VIIa), but a decrease in social conformity (Hypothesis VIa) from initial to follow-up testing. No differences in feminine vocational interests (Hypothesis VIIc) were predicted for changers. The results not only indicated an increase in masculine personality traits and vocational interests, but also a decrease in feminine vocational interests; no changes in social conformity were obtained. Although it could not be claimed that the changing of life circumstances was responsible for or the cause of the differences, it appeared nevertheless that there may have been an association.

It was predicted that no differences existed for non-changers between initial and follow-up testing in terms of personality traits (Hypothesis Vb), masculine vocational interests (Hypothesis VIIb), feminine vocational interests (Hypothesis VIId) and social conformity (Hypothesis VIb). All four hypotheses were confirmed.

The results for changers and non-changers appeared to be meaningful when it was noted that changers moved towards more masculinity on follow-up testing. As a matter of fact, where they scored lower than non-changers on the CPI-MF dimension during initial testing (46.44 versus 50.16), the

opposite was the case for the follow-up results (49.97 versus 49.83). The mean score for the general population on the CPI-MF scales is 50. It may be concluded that changers just reached an average level at post-testing, while non-changers remained at that level throughout. It is also interesting to note that inspite of the significant move towards masculinity on the SVIB-M scales, scores for changers were still similar to those for non-changers (27.44 versus 28.06) at follow-up testing. Such a finding was also obtained for the SVIB-F scales, where the significant decrease in scores by changers resulted in greater similarity to non-changers (30.55 versus 31.17).

An overall conclusion one might reach regarding the masculinity and/or femininity of the changers is that they made significant shifts towards more masculine characteristics. The ultimate results in relation to non-changers (who did not display shifts in any direction) was that the two groups of individuals "looked" more alike at the time of follow-up testing, although they were not significantly different at pre-testing.

The results regarding the social conformity factor (CPI-SC) require separate attention. Two of the predictions regarding this variable were confirmed. No difference between changers and non-changers was found on initial testing (Hypothesis II) and non-changers did not display a difference between initial and follow-up testing (Hypothesis VIb). The third Hypothesis, VIa, which predicted that

changers would display a decrease in social conformity between initial and follow-up testing was rejected. No difference was found. This latter hypothesis was initiated with the idea that changers would display less social conformity after they had made changes in life circumstances. A review of the literature had indicated that the making of changes in life circumstances might not only be non-conforming behaviour for housewives, but also that such behaviour would be more masculine. It could thus be expected that changes in results on the masculine-feminine personality and interest dimensions would be accompanied by changes in social conformity. The non-significant result regarding the changers may indicate that either the scales did not measure social conformity or else that making of changes in life circumstances was a conforming rather than non-conforming behaviour.

It was predicted that a positive correlation would exist between the masculine-feminine personality dimension and attitudes towards feminism for the 50 subjects who participated in the follow-up, (Hypothesis VIII). The confirmation of the hypothesis was in line with the findings in the literature. It could be expected that the masculine individual would react positively to the feminist movement, which stresses independence, self reliance and anti sex role stereotyping attitudes.

Hypothesis IX predicted that the husbands of changers

would be more positive in their attitudes towards feminism, than husbands of non-changers. The hypothesis was rejected. However, the results appear to be somewhat suspect, since some husbands refused to complete the FEM tests. Consequently the samples which were already small due to the lack of husbands for divorced and widowed female subjects, became even smaller and possibly biased.

In summary, it can be stated that changers showed significant changes towards masculinity from initial to follow-up testing. As a consequence they became more like non-changers, who did not display changes over the same period of time. Results in relation to social conformity were not signfficant. A more positive attitude towards feminism was directly related to the masculinity of personality for the 50 subjects in the follow-up study. When husbands of changers and non-changers were compared, they did not demonstrate differences in attitudes towards feminism.

Conclusions and Implications

Returning to the original purpose of Study I, it appeared that housewives did not differ in essence from students regarding the intra and interrelationships of masculine and feminine characteristics. When a difference was found, there seemed to be a viable explanation for it.

Relating to the problems as stated for Study II, the main findings can be formulated as follows. Individuals

who made changes in life circumstances did not differ in terms of masculine-feminine characteristics from those who did not make such changes. This result was obtained on initial data, but appeared to be valid for follow-up data also. In other words after subjects made changes in life circumstances which were accompanied by significant shifts towards masculine characteristics, this group appeared to "look" even more like the non-changers.

It was also interesting to note that the changers did not consist of a group of extremely masculine or feminine individuals. They were women who appeared to function originally on a somewhat more "feminine" level and eventually like the average female. Such information may be useful and taken into consideration when group programs with goals like those in "A Second Look" are formed, since it has implications regarding group dynamics and interactions.

With regard to "A Second Look", it is difficult to assess the real influence of the group program on the decisions made to change life circumstances. However, the subjects' responses to one question may throw some light on the problem. When asked, "Do you feel that (the program) has been of any influence on your decision to make that (meaningful positive) change?" 14 changers responded "a great deal", 10 of them answered "somewhat" and the remaining 3 said "no". For non-changers these figures were 6, 14 and 3 respectively. Apparently the changers were some-

what more influenced than non-changers. It should also be noted of course that results of longitudinal studies are practically always influenced by the maturation of the subjects and possible changes in the cultural climate during the period between pre and posttesting. However, the extent of these influences is rather difficult to assess.

The findings suggest that useful research based upon the literature described here might be conducted. Such studies might focus on the intellectual abilities and achievements of housewives with masculine and feminine personality profiles, the relationship between the masculine-feminine personality dimension and intrapersonal values, the attitudes of husbands towards feminism and groupwork with housewives. Further work should be done on the CPI-SC dimension (social conformity) as described by Megargee (1972), in an attempt to identify exactly what it does measure.

Aside from these more empirical and to an extent practical areas of research, there appear to be many theoretical issues which remain unresolved. Above all, these are concerned with the concepts of "masculinity" and "femininity". It is apparent that the nature-nurture problem is at the basis of the masculine-feminine dichotomy and issue. In other words, masculine and feminine characteristics are the result of the interaction between biological and environmental factors during human development. However, the nature of the interaction and the influence

of each factor on it is very difficult to assess and needs to be researched very extensively.

There are obvious biological differences between males and females, predisposing them towards greater facility in the performing of different physical activities. However, an array of questions arise.

Are these biological differences also expressed in psychological characteristics? And if so, to what extent and in what manner? Do the rather universal and consistent differences in psychological characteristics and activities between males and females provide support for the argument that nature is of greater influence? On the other hand, the fact that women engage themselves more and more in traditionally male activities and develop psychological characteristics of a masculine nature even within a life-span, would suggest that either nurture has a major influence, or the biological nature of females is changing.

However, aside from these questions relating to biological, cultural and historical aspects of the "masculine versus feminine" discussion, it appears to be invalid to perceive the characteristics in terms of being more or less valuable when displayed by either the one or the other sex. After all, "masculinity" and "femininity" are first and foremost human characteristics and representative of different facets of human development.

CHAPTER VI

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APPENDIX A

Initial Background Questionnaire

1. Name:
2. Date of birth:
3. Place of birth:
4. If from outside of Canada, how long have you been living in this country?
5. Marital status: married, single, divorced, widowed.
6. Ages and sex of children living at home:
7. Your occupation now:
8. Your husband's occupation:
9. Your previous occupations in chronoglocal order, the most recent first:
10. Level of education, i.e., what was the last grade you attended in school; in case university was attended, what faculty and major?
11. Other educational experiences? Course work in typing, extension department of high schools or university, etc.
12. What do you consider your interests and hobbies to be? What organizations (clubs) do or did you belong to?
13. What are your interests in reading? Magazines, novels, poetry, science fiction, etc.
14. Shortly, please point out why you decided to take the course "A second look".

APPENDIX B

A short scale of attitudes toward feminism - by Smith, Ferree and Miller

Pro-feminist Direction	Factor Loading	ITEM
Agree	.617	Women have the right to compete with men in every sphere of activity.
Disagree	.737	As head of the household, the father should have final authority over his children.
Disagree	.530	The unmarried mother is morally a greater failure than the unmarried father.
Disagree	.594	A woman who refuses to give up her job to move with her husband, would be to blame if the marriage broke up.
Disagree	.691	A woman who refuses to bear children has failed her duty to her husband.
Disagree	.581	Women should not be permitted to hold political offices that involve great responsibility.
Disagree	.777	A woman should be expected to change her name when she marries.
Agree	.476	Whether or not they realize it, most women are exploited by men.
Disagree	.687	Women who join the womens movement are typically frustrated and unattractive people who feel they lose out by the current rules of society.

Pro-feminist Direction	Factor Loading	ITEM
Disagree	.473	A working woman who sends her six month old baby to a daycare center is a bad mother.
Disagree	.601	A woman to be truly womanly should gracefully accept chivalrous attentions from men.
Agree	.455	It is absurd to regard obedience as a wifely virtue.
Disagree	.619	The "clinging vine" wife is justified provided she clings sweetly enough to please her husband.
Disagree	.467	Realistically speaking, most progress so far has been made by men and we can expect it to continue that way.
Disagree	.521	One should never trust a woman's account of another woman.
Agree	.441	It is desirable that women be appointed to policeforces with the same duties as men.
Disagree	.621	Women are basically more unpredictable than men.
Disagree	.738	It is all right for women to work, but men will always be the basic breadwinners.
Disagree	.729	A woman should not expect to go to the same places or have the same freedom of action as a man.
Disagree	.680	Profanity sounds worse generally coming from a woman.

APPENDIX C

Follow-up

Questionnaire

1. Name:

2. Marital status (please circle answer): single married separated divorced widowed.

3. Do you feel that you have made any meaningful positive changes in your life or its circumstances since you attended "A second look" program? Please check your answer(s) and provide a short elaboration where applicable.

   ( ) Continued education -

   ( ) Learned a new skill or trade -

   ( ) Started a new job -

   ( ) Became involved in volunteer activities -

   ( ) Changed marital status -

   ( ) Developed new friendships -

   ( ) Improved family relations -

   ( ) Improved relationship with myself -

4. Do you feel that "A second look" has been of any influence on your decision to make that change? Please circle your answer: a great deal somewhat no

5. Explain your answer to the previous question.

6. What is your level of education now?

7. What is your occupation now?

8. Has "A second look" possibly assisted you in coming to the conclusion that you were satisfied with your life and its circumstances of that time? If so, in what way?

9. Please make any comments you may want to make in the following space.